

# Hemodynamic Control and Delirium

Jan Hirsch

Published online: 14 January 2015  
© Springer Science+Business Media New York (outside the USA) 2015

**Abstract** One of the adverse outcomes common in older surgical patients is postoperative delirium. The incidence of postoperative delirium varies depending on the type of patients studied, the tools used to measure delirium and the frequency of measurement. Although studies have identified predisposing and precipitating risk factors, to date, no single precipitating factor that can be modified by intraoperative anesthesia management has been found. Several studies identified intraoperative hypotension to be an important precipitating factor. However, this finding was not universally supported. Recent work on intraoperative blood pressure fluctuation and postoperative delirium may contribute to bridge this apparent discrepancy. These data indicate significantly larger intraoperative fluctuation in blood pressure in patients with postoperative delirium. Further research is needed to determine what type of patients are at risk for blood pressure lability and the effects of supporting blood pressure on the incidence of postoperative delirium.

**Keywords** Surgery · Blood pressure · Delirium · Hypotension · Hemodynamics · Perioperative complications

## Introduction

Aging of the general population results in a larger number of older patients undergoing major surgery. These patients tend to have more comorbidity; in particular, postoperative delirium is more common in this age group [1, 2, 3•, 4–6]. Delirium is characterized by inattention, abnormal level of consciousness, thought disorganization, and a fluctuating course [7, 8]. The reported incidence of postoperative delirium varies between 15 and 25 % [3•, 9, 10•, 11•], and the condition is frequently not recognized in clinical settings [10•]. Postoperative delirium is a serious problem for hospitalized geriatric patients [6, 10•, 12]. Postoperative delirium is associated with significant increases in functional disability, length of hospital stay, rates of admission to long-term care institutions, and rates of death [1, 6, 9, 13–21]. Patients who developed postoperative delirium required a hospital stay approximately four times longer than those who remained lucid [22]. More importantly, delirium resulted in three times increased rates of nursing home placement and was associated with two- to five-fold increases in complications and increases in hospital mortality rates of 10–65 % [8, 23–25]. In a recent study in elderly hip fracture patients, patients with postoperative delirium were found more likely to die, to be diagnosed with dementia or mild cognitive impairment, or to require institutionalization [26]. Furthermore, patients with more comorbidities, lower independence scores, a history of falls, and lower cognitive scores were significantly more likely to develop postoperative delirium in a recent study in 416 patients [20]. Postoperative delirium has been reported to occur soon after surgery [27], and the duration of postoperative delirium was an independent predictor of 6-months mortality in older adults after hip fracture in one study [28]. The economic burden has been

---

This article is part of the Topical collection on *Perioperative Delirium*.

---

J. Hirsch (✉)  
Department of Anesthesia and Perioperative Care and  
Anesthesia Service, University of California San Francisco, San  
Francisco VA Medical Center, 4150 Clement Street Mail 129,  
San Francisco, CA 94121, USA  
e-mail: jan.hirsch@ucsf.edu

estimated as more than \$100 million per year, assuming an incidence of delirium of 20 % and annual hospitalizations of 11.8 million persons 65 years and older [29]. The pathophysiology of postoperative delirium is under active investigation [6, 15, 30, 31, 32, 33]. Multiple causes have been proposed for delirium. For example, cholinergic deficiency [34] and the inflammation even from aseptic surgery [35–37] are considered important underlying pathophysiological mechanisms that render patients more susceptible to delirium in the perioperative period. While some recommendations such as avoiding deep anesthesia and supportive therapy have been published [30], this recommendation is controversial and no definitive prevention or therapy is currently available [6, 15, 31, 32, 33]. Delirium has also been described to result from a disturbance of central tryptophan homeostasis [38, 39] and/or melatonin deficiency [40–45].

The current model suggested by Inouye [24] describes an interrelationship between predisposing and precipitating factors [15, 24, 46] on the development of delirium.

#### Predisposing Factors

In surgical and non-surgical patients, reported predisposing factors include advanced age, cognitive, functional and sensory impairment, depression, the number and severity of comorbidities, chronic renal insufficiency, abnormal glycemic control, dehydration, malnutrition, alcohol abuse, and sleep apnea [5, 47–57].

#### Precipitating Factors

Precipitating factors in the non-surgical setting include sleep disorders, sensory deprivation or overload, psychological stress, physical restraints, more than three medications added, a bladder catheter, and iatrogenic events [24, 58]. In surgical patients, precipitating perioperative factors include use of volatile anesthetics [6], opioids and benzodiazepines [6, 59], deep sedation [60], postoperative pain [61, 62], blood loss and decrease in intraoperative hematocrit [11], intraoperative blood transfusion [11, 63], and deep hypnotic state during anesthesia [30]. To date, no single precipitating factor that can be modified by intraoperative anesthesia management has been identified [6, 10].

#### Physiologic Background

Cerebral blood flow in humans was first studied by Lassen [64] over 50 years ago. The underlying concept is known as cerebral autoregulation [64–66]. While there is an ongoing scientific debate regarding the mechanism of cerebral autoregulation [67, 68], the thresholds based on

this model are generally used in clinical practice [66]. Specifically, assuming constant carbon dioxide concentration, cerebral perfusion is maintained between 50 and 150 mmHg mean arterial pressure (MAP) during changes in cerebral perfusion pressure. Cerebral perfusion pressures below 50 mmHg may lead to cerebral hypoperfusion and can affect the functioning of neurons. Cerebral perfusion pressures and cerebral autoregulation may be compromised in patients with decreased elasticity of the arterial wall. Age alone has not been shown to have an influence on cerebral autoregulation [69], but conditions that occur more frequently in older patients may impede this mechanism. It has been demonstrated that hypertension increases the limits and decreases the efficiency of static and potentially of dynamic cerebral autoregulation [70–72], and that antihypertensive treatment diminishes the ability of the cerebral vasculature to compensate for drug-induced hypotensive episodes [73]. Moreover, cerebral blood flow responses have been shown to be affected by diabetes [74] and smoking [75], and an association of obstructive sleep apnea with a lower rate of recovery of cerebrovascular conductance for a given drop in blood pressure [76] has been determined. Other conditions encountered during anesthesia, such as hypercapnia [77, 78], patient position [79, 80], changes in the autonomous nerve system [81], or vasodilatation by medication [67, 82] may also affect cerebral autoregulation.

While quoted in current literature [66] and used in clinical practice, this model of cerebral autoregulation is probably at least overly simplistic [67, 68]. Thresholds for the lower limit of autoregulation determined by other authors range from similar to substantially higher [67]. For example, Walsh recently published [73] a retrospective analysis in 33,330 patients on end-organ damage and established an empiric threshold of 55 mmHg based on data on acute kidney injury and myocardial infarction. The authors found a significantly increased stroke risk with intraoperative hypotension below a MAP of 55 mmHg.

#### Intraoperative Hypotension and Postoperative Delirium

In addition to the above precipitating factors, it has been proposed [6, 83] that intraoperative hypotension is a major predictor of postoperative delirium, and avoiding intraoperative hypotension has been made part of a recently published intervention strategy [84].

Several recent studies concluded that, among other factors, intraoperative hypotension is a predictor of postoperative delirium (Table 1). Patti and coworkers reported that in 100 consecutive patients over 65 years of age undergoing colorectal surgery [3], postoperative delirium rate was 18 % with significant associations with intraoperative hypotension, higher infusion volume, and more

blood loss. In 90 consecutive urological surgery patients reported by Tognoni et al. [83••], age, preoperative cognitive and functional status, history of delirium, and hypotensive episodes during surgery were independent predictors of delirium. Aldemir et al. [9] conducted a prospective study in 818 consecutive critically ill patients who were admitted to the surgical intensive care unit. Of note, this study was performed in a general, younger

population. Among the 90 patients with delirium, respiratory diseases, infections, anemia, hypotension, electrolyte abnormalities, and others were factors associated with delirium. Edlund et al. [85••] investigated 101 patients after femoral neck fracture before and after surgery and found that 18.8 % developed postoperative delirium, in this study [85••], 29.7 % of patients were delirious preoperatively, and all but one of the patients with preoperative delirium

**Table 1** Published studies on postoperative delirium and hypotension

Study	No. of patients	Surgery	Age	Hypotension as risk factor	Other risk factors	Delirium risk	Remarks
Patti et al. [3••]	100	Colorectal surgery	>65	Yes	Higher infusion volume, blood loss, age, history of delirium, alcohol abuse, lower albumin, lower Barthel scores	18 %	
Tognoni et al. [83••]	90	Urological surgery	>65	Yes	Age, preoperative status, history of delirium	8.8 %	81 males and 9 females; 66 general, 22 spinal anesthesia
Aldemir et al. [9]	818	Critically ill	Adults	Yes	Respiratory diseases, infections, anemia, electrolyte abnormalities, male gender, age	11 %	Male/female (47/52 %), younger patients, intensive care setting. Critically ill, admitted to surgical intensive care unit, elective and emergency services
Edlund et al. [85••]	101	Femoral neck fracture	>65	Yes	Postoperative infections	48 %	Emergency surgery, 29.7 % delirious before surgery, 18.8 % postoperatively only
Echigoya et al. [86]	30	Elective laparotomy	n/a	Yes	Transfusion, infusion, surgery time, blood loss		Small sample size, limited statistics, article in Japanese
Gottesman et al. [87]	15	CABG	57–81	Yes	Preoperative mean arterial pressure	n/a	Small sample size, type of surgery may introduce additional covariate
Hirsch et al. [91••]	594	Major elective non-cardiac surgery	>65	No	Blood pressure fluctuation, age, female gender, lower preoperative cognitive score, longer surgery	30 % day 1, 29.6 % day 2	Patients undergoing general anesthesia
Williams-Russo et al. [88]	235	Elective total hip replacement	>50	No	Male sex, preoperative neuropsychology tests	Overall 7 %	Only epidural and spinal anesthesia, patients prospectively randomized to different MAP targets [45–55, 55–70 mmHg]. Overall Delirium risk 7, 9 % in low pressure, 4 % in higher BP group; no statistically significant difference
Marcantonio et al. [11••]	1,341	Major elective non-cardiac surgery	>50	No	Blood loss, more blood transfusions, postoperative Hct <30 %; age, function, cognitive impairment, alcohol, abnormal chemistry, surgery in multivariate analysis	9 %	All patients underwent general anesthesia, 55 % female
Santos et al. [90]	220	Coronary artery bypass graft surgery	>60	No	Age, blood urea, cardiothoracic index, hypertension, smoking, blood transfusion, atrial fibrillation, pneumonia	33.3 %	Type of surgery may be an additional covariate

continued to have delirium after the surgery. Edlund found that patients with delirium had a higher incidence of perioperative falls in blood pressure.

In addition, two recent retrospective studies provide data on the hemodynamic data and postoperative cognitive status of 30 patients after abdominal surgery [86] and 15 patients after coronary artery bypass grafting [87], respectively. In both studies, the authors identified an association between intraoperative hypotension and postoperative delirium.

However, several large investigations reported contradictory results. In a prospective, randomized study on adults >50 years undergoing total hip replacement under epidural anesthesia, Williams-Russo et al. [88] demonstrated that hypotensive and normotensive patients had a similar incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction. Of note, this work only evaluated one single type of surgical procedure, and did not include patients undergoing general anesthesia. In a non-randomized, prospective clinical cohort study, Marcantonio et al. [11••] studied 1,341 patients over 50 years undergoing major elective non-cardiac surgery and found postoperative delirium in 117 patients (9 %). Route of anesthesia and intraoperative hemodynamic complications were not associated with delirium, while delirium was correlated with greater intraoperative blood loss, more postoperative blood transfusions, and postoperative hematocrit <30 %. Supporting these data, a large multicenter study found no association between intraoperative hypotension with short-term (1 week) or long-term postoperative cognitive dysfunction [89]. Similarly, a study in 220 patients after coronary artery bypass grafting [90] did as well not find an influence of intraoperative perfusion pressure on postoperative delirium.

We recently performed a prospective cohort study of 594 patients aged  $\geq 65$  years after non-cardiac surgery [91••]. In this elderly cohort, 178 patients (30 %) developed delirium on day one and 176 (29.6 %) on day two after surgery. At baseline, patients with delirium were significantly older, more often female, had lower preoperative cognitive scores, and underwent longer operative procedures. Relative hypotension (decreases by 20, 30, or 40 %) or absolute hypotension (MAP <50 mmHg) was not significantly associated with postoperative delirium, nor was the duration of hypotension (MAP <50 mmHg). Conversely, intraoperative fluctuations in blood pressure (measured by the variance) were significantly associated with postoperative delirium [91••].

#### A Potential Role for Blood Pressure Fluctuation

Blood pressure fluctuation, measured by variance, may provide an explanation for this apparent discrepancy in study results. We observed larger intraoperative fluctuation in

blood pressure in patients who later developed postoperative delirium [91••]. Different from hypotension, the calculation of blood pressure variance includes both blood pressure increases and decreases throughout the entire course of surgery. After controlling for demographic factors, blood pressure variance remained a significant factor for the development of postoperative delirium [91••]. In multivariate analysis, preoperative cognitive status and length of surgery in combination with hemodynamic variance contributed to postoperative delirium. Other factors, such as age, may indirectly contribute to larger intraoperative fluctuations in intravascular volume and blood rheology in these patients.

Recent work has suggested that visit-to-visit blood pressure variability may be associated with cardiovascular and stroke risk [92, 93]. While the hypothesis of an association of this finding with our results on postoperative delirium may look appealing, many other surgical and anesthetic factors may contribute to both intraoperative and inter-visit blood pressure variability. For example, intraoperative blood loss, intravascular volume shifts, surgical stimulation, or anesthesia medication may contribute to intraoperative blood pressure variability, while medication compliance may affect visit-to-visit variability.

#### Challenges in Determining the Role of Intraoperative Blood Pressure

In our study [91••], few patients had substantial blood pressure decreases, which emphasizes that intraoperative hypotension is not an independent variable, but tightly controlled by the anesthesiologist. In addition, intraoperative hypotension is related to variables such as intraoperative blood loss and transfusion, which have been shown to be associated with postoperative delirium [63]. Moreover, some investigators found that episodes of intraoperative hypotension may be enhanced (or obscured) by reporting bias if manual data entry versus automatic blood pressure recording is used [94].

#### Conclusions

Postoperative delirium is a geriatric syndrome with unknown etiology. Currently, there are conflicting data if blood pressure decreases during surgery are associated with a significantly increased risk of this condition. Moreover, recent work indicates that blood pressure fluctuations during surgery, represented by changes in blood pressure variance, contribute to early postoperative delirium. Additional research is needed to predict which patients may have a greater tendency toward developing lability in blood pressure during surgery. The evidence to date suggests that prospective clinical trials are needed to determine

if even tighter control of intraoperative blood pressure to minimize hypotension and fluctuation will lead to a decreased incidence in postoperative delirium.

### Compliance with Ethics Guidelines

**Conflict of Interest** Jan Hirsch declares that he has no conflict of interest.

**Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent** This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

### References

Papers of particular interest, published recently, have been highlighted as:

- Of importance
- Of major importance

1. Cole MG. Delirium in elderly patients. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2004;12:7–21.
2. Robinson TN, Raeburn CD, Tran ZV, Angles EM, Brenner LA, Moss M. Postoperative delirium in the elderly: risk factors and outcomes. *Ann Surg*. 2009;249:173–8.
3. ••Patti R, Saitta M, Cusumano G, Termine G, Di Vita G. Risk factors for postoperative delirium after colorectal surgery for carcinoma. *Eur J Oncol Nurs*. 2011;15:519–23. *One of the few recent studies that addresses the topic. Small sample size is a limitation.*
4. Jankowski CJ, Trenerry MR, Cook DJ, Buenvenida SL, Stevens SR, Schroeder DR, Warner DO. Cognitive and functional predictors and sequelae of postoperative delirium in elderly patients undergoing elective joint arthroplasty. *Anesth Analg*. 2011;112:1186–93.
5. Kalisvaart KJ, Vreeswijk R, de Jonghe JF, van der Ploeg T, van Gool WA, Eikelenboom P. Risk factors and prediction of postoperative delirium in elderly hip-surgery patients: implementation and validation of a medical risk factor model. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2006;54:817–22.
6. Monk TG, Price CC. Postoperative cognitive disorders. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2011;17:376–81.
7. Marcantonio ER. In the clinic. Delirium. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;154:ITC6–16.
8. Inouye SK. Delirium in older persons. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354:1157–65.
9. Aldemir M, Ozen S, Kara IH, Sir A, Bac B. Predisposing factors for delirium in the surgical intensive care unit. *Crit Care*. 2001;5:265–70.
10. ••Marcantonio ER. Postoperative delirium: a 76-year-old woman with delirium following surgery. *JAMA*. 2012;308:73–81. *Excellent recent case report/review on postoperative delirium.*
11. ••Marcantonio ER, Goldman L, Orav EJ, Cook EF, Lee TH. The association of intraoperative factors with the development of postoperative delirium. *Am J Med*. 1998;105:380–4. *One of the few large studies that addresses the topic. Older, very comprehensive landmark study.*
12. Steiner LA. Postoperative delirium. Part 1: pathophysiology and risk factors. *Eur J Anaesthesiol*. 2011;28:628–36.
13. Rockwood K, Cosway S, Carver D, Jarrett P, Stadnyk K, Fisk J. The risk of dementia and death after delirium. *Age Ageing*. 1999;28:551–6.
14. Quinlan N, Rudolph JL. Postoperative delirium and functional decline after noncardiac surgery. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2011;59(Suppl 2):S301–4.
15. Guenther U, Radtke FM. Delirium in the postanesthesia period. *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol*. 2011;24:670–5.
16. Rudolph JL, Marcantonio ER. Review articles: postoperative delirium: acute change with long-term implications. *Anesth Analg*. 2011;112:1202–11.
17. Ely EW, Shintani A, Truman B, Speroff T, Gordon SM, Harrell FE Jr, Inouye SK, Bernard GR, Dittus RS. Delirium as a predictor of mortality in mechanically ventilated patients in the intensive care unit. *JAMA*. 2004;291:1753–62.
18. Milbrandt EB, Deppen S, Harrison PL, Shintani AK, Speroff T, Stiles RA, Truman B, Bernard GR, Dittus RS, Ely EW. Costs associated with delirium in mechanically ventilated patients. *Crit Care Med*. 2004;32:955–62.
19. Ely EW, Gautam S, Margolin R, Francis J, May L, Speroff T, Truman B, Dittus R, Bernard R, Inouye SK. The impact of delirium in the intensive care unit on hospital length of stay. *Intensive Care Med*. 2001;27:1892–900.
20. Korc-Grodzicki B, Sun SW, Zhou Q, Iasonos A, Lu B, Root JC, Downey RJ, Tew WP. Geriatric assessment as a predictor of delirium and other outcomes in elderly patients with cancer. *Ann Surg*. 2014. doi:10.1097/SLA.0000000000000742.
21. Oresanya LB, Lyons WL, Finlayson E. Preoperative assessment of the older patient: a narrative review. *JAMA*. 2014;311:2110–20.
22. Berggren D, Gustafson Y, Eriksson B, Bucht G, Hansson LI, Reiz S, Winblad B. Postoperative confusion after anesthesia in elderly patients with femoral neck fractures. *Anesth Analg*. 1987;66:497–504.
23. Inouye SK. Prevention of delirium in hospitalized older patients: risk factors and targeted intervention strategies. *Ann Med*. 2000;32:257–63.
24. Inouye SK, Charpentier PA. Precipitating factors for delirium in hospitalized elderly persons. Predictive model and interrelationship with baseline vulnerability. *JAMA*. 1996;275:852–7.
25. Inouye SK. The dilemma of delirium: clinical and research controversies regarding diagnosis and evaluation of delirium in hospitalized elderly medical patients. *Am J Med*. 1994;97:278–88.
26. Marcantonio ER, Flacker JM, Michaels M, Resnick NM. Delirium is independently associated with poor functional recovery after hip fracture. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2000;48:618–24.
27. Bickel H, Gradinger R, Kochs E, Forstl H. High risk of cognitive and functional decline after postoperative delirium. A three-year prospective study. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord*. 2008;26:26–31.
28. Bellelli G, Mazzola P, Morandi A, Bruni A, Carnevali L, Corsi M, Zatti G, Zambon A, Corrao G, Olofsson B, Gustafson Y, Annoni G. Duration of postoperative delirium is an independent predictor of 6-month mortality in older adults after hip fracture. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2014;62:1335–40.
29. Leslie DL, Marcantonio ER, Zhang Y, Leo-Summers L, Inouye SK. One-year health care costs associated with delirium in the elderly population. *Arch Intern Med*. 2008;168:27–32.
30. Moyce Z, Rodseth RN, Biccard BM. The efficacy of peri-operative interventions to decrease postoperative delirium in non-cardiac surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Anaesthesia*. 2014;69:259–69.
31. Steiner LA. Postoperative delirium. Part 2: detection, prevention and treatment. *Eur J Anaesthesiol*. 2011;28:723–32.
32. •Wang W, Li HL, Wang DX, Zhu X, Li SL, Yao GQ, Chen KS, Gu XE, Zhu SN. Haloperidol prophylaxis decreases delirium incidence in elderly patients after noncardiac surgery: a randomized controlled trial. *Crit Care Med*. 2012;40:731–9. *Larger study investigating prophylactic treatment for postoperative delirium.*
33. Kalisvaart KJ, de Jonghe JF, Bogaards MJ, Vreeswijk R, Egberts TC, Burger BJ, Eikelenboom P, van Gool WA. Haloperidol prophylaxis for elderly hip-surgery patients at risk for delirium: a

- randomized placebo-controlled study. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2005;53:1658–66.
34. Hshieh TT, Fong TG, Marcantonio ER, Inouye SK. Cholinergic deficiency hypothesis in delirium: a synthesis of current evidence. *J Gerontol A.* 2008;63:764–72.
  35. Kobbe P, Vodovotz Y, Kaczorowski DJ, Mollen KP, Billiar TR, Pape HC. Patterns of cytokine release and evolution of remote organ dysfunction after bilateral femur fracture. *Shock.* 2008;30:43–7.
  36. MacLulich AM, Ferguson KJ, Miller T, de Rooij SE, Cunningham C. Unravelling the pathophysiology of delirium: a focus on the role of aberrant stress responses. *J Psychosom Res.* 2008;65:229–38.
  37. van Gool WA, van de Beek D, Eikelenboom P. Systemic infection and delirium: when cytokines and acetylcholine collide. *Lancet.* 2010;375:773–5.
  38. Lewis MC, Barnett SR. Postoperative delirium: the tryptophan dysregulation model. *Med Hypotheses.* 2004;63:402–6.
  39. Robinson TN, Raeburn CD, Angles EM, Moss M. Low tryptophan levels are associated with postoperative delirium in the elderly. *Am J Surg.* 2008;196:670–4.
  40. Shigeta H, Yasui A, Nimura Y, Machida N, Kageyama M, Miura M, Menjo M, Ikeda K. Postoperative delirium and melatonin levels in elderly patients. *Am J Surg.* 2001;182:449–54.
  41. Yoshitaka S, Egi M, Morimatsu H, Kanazawa T, Toda Y, Morita K. Perioperative plasma melatonin concentration in postoperative critically ill patients: its association with delirium. *J Crit Care.* 2013;28:236–42.
  42. Sher L. Postoperative delirium, plasma melatonin, and light. *Med Hypotheses.* 2001;56:411–2.
  43. Uchida K, Aoki T, Ishizuka B. Postoperative delirium and plasma melatonin. *Med Hypotheses.* 1999;53:103–6.
  44. Kain ZN, MacLaren JE, Herrmann L, Mayes L, Rosenbaum A, Hata J, Lerman J. Preoperative melatonin and its effects on induction and emergence in children undergoing anesthesia and surgery. *Anesthesiology.* 2009;111:44–9.
  45. de Jonghe A, van Munster BC, van Oosten HE, Goslings JC, Kloen P, van Rees C, Wolvius R, van Velde R, Levi MM, Korevaar JC, de Rooij SE. The effects of melatonin versus placebo on delirium in hip fracture patients: study protocol of a randomised, placebo-controlled, double blind trial. *BMC Geriatr.* 2011;11:34.
  46. Brauer C, Morrison RS, Silberzweig SB, Siu AL. The cause of delirium in patients with hip fracture. *Arch Intern Med.* 2000;160:1856–60.
  47. Leung JM, Sands LP, Mullen EA, Wang Y, Vaurio L. Are preoperative depressive symptoms associated with postoperative delirium in geriatric surgical patients? *J Gerontol A.* 2005;60:1563–8.
  48. Lee HB, Mears SC, Rosenberg PB, Leoutsakos JM, Gottschalk A, Sieber FE. Predisposing factors for postoperative delirium after hip fracture repair in individuals with and without dementia. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2011;59:2306–13.
  49. Francis J, Martin D, Kapoor WN. A prospective study of delirium in hospitalized elderly. *JAMA.* 1990;263:1097–101.
  50. Rockwood K. Acute confusion in elderly medical patients. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 1989;37:150–4.
  51. Elie M, Cole MG, Primeau FJ, Bellavance F. Delirium risk factors in elderly hospitalized patients. *J Gen Intern Med.* 1998;13:204–12.
  52. Rogers MP, Liang MH, Daltroy LH, Eaton H, Peteet J, Wright E, Albert M. Delirium after elective orthopedic surgery: risk factors and natural history. *Int J Psychiatry Med.* 1989;19:109–21.
  53. Schor JD, Levkoff SE, Lipsitz LA, Reilly CH, Cleary PD, Rowe JW, Evans DA. Risk factors for delirium in hospitalized elderly. *JAMA.* 1992;267:827–31.
  54. Ansaloni L, Catena F, Chattat R, Fortuna D, Franceschi C, Mascitti P, Melotti RM. Risk factors and incidence of postoperative delirium in elderly patients after elective and emergency surgery. *Br J Surg.* 2010;97:273–80.
  55. Flink BJ, Rivelli SK, Cox EA, White WD, Falcone G, Vail TP, Young CC, Bolognesi MP, Krystal AD, Trzepacz PT, Moon RE, Kwatra MM. Obstructive sleep apnea and incidence of postoperative delirium after elective knee replacement in the nondemented elderly. *Anesthesiology.* 2012;116:788–96.
  56. Rudolph JL, Jones RN, Levkoff SE, Rockett C, Inouye SK, Sellke FW, Khuri SF, Lipsitz LA, Ramlawi B, Levitsky S, Marcantonio ER. Derivation and validation of a preoperative prediction rule for delirium after cardiac surgery. *Circulation.* 2009;119:229–36.
  57. Marcantonio ER, Goldman L, Mangione CM, Ludwig LE, Muraca B, Haslauer CM, Donaldson MC, Whittlemore AD, Sugarbaker DJ, Poss R, et al. A clinical prediction rule for delirium after elective noncardiac surgery. *JAMA.* 1994;271:134–9.
  58. Lipowski ZJ. Delirium in the elderly patient. *N Engl J Med.* 1989;320:578–82.
  59. Sieber FE, Mears S, Lee H, Gottschalk A. Postoperative opioid consumption and its relationship to cognitive function in older adults with hip fracture. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2011;59:2256–62.
  60. Sieber FE, Zakriya KJ, Gottschalk A, Blute MR, Lee HB, Rosenberg PB, Mears SC. Sedation depth during spinal anesthesia and the development of postoperative delirium in elderly patients undergoing hip fracture repair. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2010;85:18–26.
  61. Vaurio LE, Sands LP, Wang Y, Mullen EA, Leung JM. Postoperative delirium: the importance of pain and pain management. *Anesth Analg.* 2006;102:1267–73.
  62. Leung JM, Sands LP, Lim E, Tsai TL, Kinjo S. Does preoperative risk for delirium moderate the effects of postoperative pain and opiate use on postoperative delirium? *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry.* 2013;21:946–56.
  63. Behrends M, DePalma G, Sands L, Leung J. Association between intraoperative blood transfusions and early postoperative delirium in older adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2013;61:365–70.
  64. Lassen NA. Cerebral blood flow and oxygen consumption in man. *Physiol Rev.* 1959;39:183–238.
  65. Paulson OB, Strandgaard S, Edvinsson L. Cerebral autoregulation. *Cerebrovasc Brain Metab Rev.* 1990;2:161–92.
  66. Dagal A, Lam AM. Cerebral autoregulation and anesthesia. *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol.* 2009;22:547–52.
  67. Drummond JC. The lower limit of autoregulation: time to revise our thinking? *Anesthesiology.* 1997;86:1431–3.
  68. ••Willie CK, Tzeng YC, Fisher JA, Ainslie PN. Integrative regulation of human brain blood flow. *J Physiol.* 2014;592:841–59. *Excellent, up to date review article on the physiology of cerebral autoregulation.*
  69. Carey BJ, Eames PJ, Blake MJ, Panerai RB, Potter JF. Dynamic cerebral autoregulation is unaffected by aging. *Stroke.* 2000;31:2895–900.
  70. Immink RV, van den Born BJ, van Montfrans GA, Koopmans RP, Karemaker JM, van Lieshout JJ. Impaired cerebral autoregulation in patients with malignant hypertension. *Circulation.* 2004;110:2241–5.
  71. Strandgaard S. Autoregulation of cerebral blood flow in hypertensive patients. The modifying influence of prolonged antihypertensive treatment on the tolerance to acute, drug-induced hypotension. *Circulation.* 1976;53:720–7.
  72. Eames PJ, Blake MJ, Panerai RB, Potter JF. Cerebral autoregulation indices are unimpaired by hypertension in middle aged and older people. *Am J Hypertens.* 2003;16:746–53.
  73. Walsh M, Devereaux PJ, Garg AX, Kurz A, Turan A, Rodseth RN, Cywinski J, Thabane L, Sessler DI. Relationship between intraoperative mean arterial pressure and clinical outcomes after noncardiac surgery: toward an empirical definition of hypotension. *Anesthesiology.* 2013;119:507–15.

74. Kim YS, Davis SC, Truijen J, Stok WJ, Secher NH, van Lieshout JJ. Intensive blood pressure control affects cerebral blood flow in type 2 diabetes mellitus patients. *Hypertension*. 2011;57:738–45.
75. Boyajian RA, Otis SM. Acute effects of smoking on human cerebral blood flow: a transcranial Doppler ultrasonography study. *J Neuroimaging*. 2000;10:204–8.
76. Urbano F, Roux F, Schindler J, Mohsenin V. Impaired cerebral autoregulation in obstructive sleep apnea. *J Appl Physiol*. 1985;2008(105):1852–7.
77. Przybylowski T, Bangash MF, Reichmuth K, Morgan BJ, Skatrud JB, Dempsey JA. Mechanisms of the cerebrovascular response to apnoea in humans. *J Physiol*. 2003;548:323–32.
78. Mandell DM, Han JS, Poublanc J, Crawley AP, Kassner A, Fisher JA, Mikulis DJ. Selective reduction of blood flow to white matter during hypercapnia corresponds with leukoaraiosis. *Stroke*. 2008;39:1993–8.
79. Pohl A, Cullen DJ. Cerebral ischemia during shoulder surgery in the upright position: a case series. *J Clin Anesth*. 2005;17:463–9.
80. Yadeau JT, Casciano M, Liu SS, Edmonds CR, Gordon M, Stanton J, John R, Shaw PM, Wilfred SE, Stanton M. Stroke, regional anesthesia in the sitting position, and hypotension: a review of 4169 ambulatory surgery patients. *Reg Anesth Pain Med*. 2011;36:430–5.
81. Hamner JW, Tan CO, Tzeng YC, Taylor JA. Cholinergic control of the cerebral vasculature in humans. *J Physiol*. 2012;590:6343–52.
82. Tzeng YC, Chan GS, Willie CK, Ainslie PN. Determinants of human cerebral pressure–flow velocity relationships: new insights from vascular modelling and Ca(2)(+) channel blockade. *J Physiol*. 2011;589:3263–74.
83. ••Tognoni P, Simonato A, Robutti N, Pisani M, Cataldi A, Monacelli F, Carmignani G, Odetti P. Preoperative risk factors for postoperative delirium (POD) after urological surgery in the elderly. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr*. 2011;52:e166–9. *One of the few recent studies that addresses the topic with a sufficient sample size.*
84. Bjorkelund KB, Hommel A, Thorngren KG, Gustafson L, Larsson S, Lundberg D. Reducing delirium in elderly patients with hip fracture: a multi-factorial intervention study. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand*. 2010;54:678–88.
85. ••Edlund A, Lundstrom M, Brannstrom B, Bucht G, Gustafson Y. Delirium before and after operation for femoral neck fracture. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2001;49:1335–40. *One of the few studies that addresses the topic with a sufficient sample size, albeit with some confounding covariates due to being done on non-elective surgeries.*
86. Echigoya Y, Kato H. [Causes of postoperative delirium after abdominal surgery in elderly patients]. *Masui. Jpn J Anesthesiol*. 2007;56:932–6.
87. Gottesman RF, Hillis AE, Grega MA, Borowicz LM Jr, Selnes OA, Baumgartner WA, McKhann GM. Early postoperative cognitive dysfunction and blood pressure during coronary artery bypass graft operation. *Arch Neurol*. 2007;64:1111–4.
88. Williams-Russo P, Sharrock NE, Mattis S, Liguori GA, Mancuso C, Peterson MG, Hollenberg J, Ranawat C, Salvati E, Sculco T. Randomized trial of hypotensive epidural anesthesia in older adults. *Anesthesiology*. 1999;91:926–35.
89. Moller JT, Cluitmans P, Rasmussen LS, Houx P, Rasmussen H, Canet J, Rabbitt P, Jolles J, Larsen K, Hanning CD, Langeron O, Johnson T, Lauven PM, Kristensen PA, Biedler A, van Beem H, Fradakis O, Silverstein JH, Beneken JE, Gravenstein JS. Long-term postoperative cognitive dysfunction in the elderly ISPOCD1 study. ISPOCD investigators. International study of post-operative cognitive dysfunction. *Lancet*. 1998;351:857–61.
90. Santos FS, Velasco IT, Fraguas R Jr. Risk factors for delirium in the elderly after coronary artery bypass graft surgery. *Int Psychogeriatr*. 2004;16:175–93.
91. ••Hirsch J, dePalma G, Tsai T, Sands L, Leung JM. Impact of intraoperative hypotension and blood pressure fluctuations on early postoperative delirium after non-cardiac surgery. *Br J Anesth*. 2014; (Accepted for Publication). *One of the few recent studies that addresses the topic. Introduces blood pressure fluctuation in the discussion.*
92. Rothwell PM, Howard SC, Dolan E, O'Brien E, Dobson JE, Dahlof B, Sever PS, Poulter NR. Prognostic significance of visit-to-visit variability, maximum systolic blood pressure, and episodic hypertension. *Lancet*. 2010;375:895–905.
93. Rothwell PM. Does blood pressure variability modulate cardiovascular risk? *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2011;13:177–86.
94. Benson M, Junger A, Fuchs C, Quinzio L, Bottger S, Jost A, Uphus D, Hempelmann G. Using an anesthesia information management system to prove a deficit in voluntary reporting of adverse events in a quality assurance program. *J Clin Monit Comput*. 2000;16:211–7.